

1 **Title**

2 The choice of path to resilience is crucial to the future of production forests

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25 *Resilience in production forests can be achieved through natural ecological processes or*
26 *repeated intensive interventions. We caution that the ‘coerced’ resilience derived from human*
27 *inputs may exacerbate biodiversity loss, narrow the range of ecosystem services provided, and*
28 *limit general resilience, i.e. the capacity of production forests to recover from unforeseen*
29 *disturbances.*

30

31 Efforts to ensure that production forests provide their intended benefits despite climate change
32 and other stressors are often framed in terms of enhancing the resilience of these systems.
33 Ecological resilience can be defined as “the capacity of a system to absorb disturbance and
34 reorganize while undergoing change so as to retain essentially the same function, structure,
35 identity, and feedbacks”¹. In forest ecosystems, ‘ecological resilience’ arises from ecological
36 processes and feedbacks and is frequently related to biological diversity². However, production
37 forests are social-ecological systems which may be heavily and repeatedly altered by human

38 actions. These actions commonly standardize or minimise the forests' intrinsic variability in
39 tree species composition, structure and function, thereby supporting the repeated and
40 predictable delivery of a few desired outputs. As the ecological processes and feedbacks of
41 natural forests are replaced, these systems may become dependent on anthropogenic
42 intervention to be resilient. Here, we argue that pursuing this 'coerced resilience' [sensu ³] will
43 have ramifications for forest biodiversity, ecosystem services, and the capacity of production
44 forests to recover from unforeseen disturbances (Fig. 1).

45 **Two different pathways to resilience**

46 The effective management of production forests requires decision makers to mitigate the risks
47 of damage from disturbances. The solutions proposed to achieve this often rely on repeated
48 anthropogenic inputs, such as the planting of single or few disturbance-resistant species of
49 seedling, introduction of non-native tree species, use of chemical or mechanical treatments to
50 limit damage from herbivores and pathogens, and removal of competing vegetation and
51 deadwood. The degree to which such human input is used determines whether the result can
52 be classed as ecological or coerced resilience (Fig. 1). For example, forest managers may
53 reduce pathogen risk either by planting pathogen-resistant clones of a desired tree species
54 (coerced resilience) or by adopting mixtures of species which are less vulnerable in
55 combination (ecological resilience). Other human actions that can promote forest resilience
56 include active interventions to reduce stand exposure to risk (e.g. shorter rotations), contain
57 hazards (e.g. 'sanitation' felling of sick trees) and directly reduce tree susceptibility to
58 disturbance (e.g. through tree breeding). In the most intensive form of production forest
59 management, trees are planted as even-aged monocultures and ongoing anthropogenic
60 interventions aim to keep the stand on a deterministic developmental pathway from stand
61 regeneration to final harvest.

62 Even highly modified and simplified production forests can, through intensive anthropogenic
63 efforts, retain their identity and function after disturbance – for example, by replanting the same
64 tree species after large-scale canopy dieback. However, active and repeated efforts to limit a
65 forest's natural variation in tree species and structure can limit the ecological foundations of
66 resilience, such as complex canopy structures, heterogeneity in tree age and size, and presence
67 of tree species with different functional traits^{2,4}. In other words, interventions aimed at
68 maximising coerced resilience may prevent the development of those features which make
69 forests ecologically resilient to disturbances. In response to escalating disturbances, forest
70 managers and society in general are increasingly being faced with choices that involve deciding
71 between ecological resilience and coerced resilience in production forests.

72

73 **Figure 1. Ecological versus coerced resilience in production forests.** **a**, For production
74 forests located on the left-hand side, system resilience is primarily conferred by ecological
75 processes, providing ecological resilience. Towards the right-hand side, anthropogenic inputs
76 increasingly determine system resilience, and thereby result in coerced resilience (panel
77 modified from ref [³]). **b**, Proposed solutions to disturbance and climate change adaptation
78 efforts can rely to a greater or lesser extent on ecological or coerced resilience to achieve system
79 stability. For example, rotationally clear-cut even-aged, planted stands, dominated by a single
80 species of native or non-native conifer, are typical of many wood production forests.
81 Production forests in this category are often deemed susceptible to a range of abiotic and biotic

82 disturbances, for which highly contrasting solutions are advocated as effective responses, as
83 illustrated here with five examples. **c-e**, The choices taken have implications for the key drivers
84 of habitat availability in production forests (**c**), the specific combinations and portfolio of
85 ecosystem services provided (**d**), as well as the known and unknown disturbances the
86 production forest is resilient to, and whether general versus specified resilience is achieved (**e**).

87

88 **Implications of the resilience path chosen**

89 The choice of resilience pathway strongly affects biodiversity, since it alters the primary
90 determinants of habitat availability in production forests. These determinants include tree
91 species composition and disturbance regimes, as well as the resulting forest structures (large
92 old trees, coarse woody debris) and heterogeneity thereof (Fig. 1.C). For instance, if more
93 frequent management cycles are adopted in response to abiotic or biotic disturbances (e.g.
94 shortened rotations in response to pathogen or windthrow risk), forest biodiversity is likely to
95 decline due to the reduced availability of key habitat structures and lowered stand
96 heterogeneity. These impacts can be expected to worsen if combined with sanitation felling or
97 chemical treatments, as in response to e.g. bark beetle outbreaks. In contrast, increasing abiotic
98 and biotic disturbances can motivate the conversion of, for example, even-aged conifer stands
99 to more functionally and structurally complex broadleaf-conifer mixtures, or uneven-aged
100 management, both of which increase the range of environmental conditions and resources
101 provided for biodiversity. Differences in the habitat provision of production forests matter,
102 because one third of the world's forest area is managed primarily for wood production⁵.
103 Moreover, the consumption of primary processed wood products is expected to grow almost
104 40% over 2020 levels by 2050⁶, and less than 16% of the world's forests are formally protected
105 for biodiversity conservation⁷. Thus, global forest biodiversity conservation strongly depends
106 on production forests, whose taxonomic, functional and structural diversity components are at
107 risk from decisions that rely on coerced over ecological resilience.

108 Over-reliance on coerced resilience will also have implications for the breadth of ecosystem
109 services provided by production forests Fig. 1D; see ⁸. For example, rotation lengths in even-
110 aged conifer monocultures can be shortened to help mitigate the risks of windthrow and
111 specific categories of pest and pathogen damage, but this can come at the cost of other forest
112 ecosystem services (including roundwood, wild fruit and mushroom production, water quality
113 and soil nutrient retention, and cultural services involving aesthetic and recreational values⁹).
114 There are thus potential trade-offs for forest managers attempting to coerce resilience in even-
115 aged monocultures solely by increasing the frequency of harvest. In contrast, diversifying the
116 tree species composition can reduce certain abiotic and biotic risks while also increasing the
117 range of ecosystem services provided^{8,10}.

118 **Specific or general resilience**

119 A primary consideration when seeking to enhance the resilience of forest systems is whether
120 the measures targeting particular disturbances would also be effective at limiting the impacts
121 of other foreseen and unforeseen disturbances (Fig 1.E) – in other words, whether general
122 resilience is achieved, or resilience is limited solely to a specific disturbance¹¹. Increasing the
123 resilience of a system to specific disturbances may even cause the system to lose resilience to
124 other types of disturbance¹². For instance, shortened rotations may increase other risks,

125 including risks from regeneration pests and fungal pathogens causing foliar and stem diseases⁹,
126 as well as increased fire risk, which has additional negative outcomes for forest carbon
127 storage¹³.

128 In contrast to resilience to a specific disturbance, general resilience is particularly sought as a
129 strategy for adaptation to climate change, as it involves creating natural-resource systems
130 capable of absorbing the uncertain impacts of even novel disturbances (for instance, future
131 droughts in regions not historically prone to drought)¹¹. Environmental uncertainty should now
132 be a central consideration in production forest management, because climate and disturbance
133 regime changes are so rapid and uncertain as to overtake the development cycle of a single
134 rotation, and operate well outside the historic range of variability. Whereas intensified forestry
135 practices can be used to achieve specified resilience, the same interventions cannot be expected
136 to enhance biodiversity. In contrast, production forest management actions that enhance
137 biodiversity and ecosystem functioning also tend to confer ecological resilience^{8,10}, which in
138 turn begets general resilience.

139

140 **Resilience for the future**

141 There are limits in the extent to which forest systems can absorb novel disturbances. For
142 example, climatic change is already accompanied by significant increases in abiotic and biotic
143 disturbance impacts on European forests¹⁴, with the expectation that damage from wind, fire,
144 native and non-native insects and pathogens will continue to increase this century. Similar
145 alarms are being raised regarding the future health of the world's forests¹⁵, and these concerns
146 are compounding as global emissions continue to exceed the climate change mitigation targets
147 agreed to under the Paris Agreement. Under such circumstances, the magnitude of
148 environmental change in some regions will likely exceed the adaptive capacity of local tree
149 species and ecological processes, resulting in increasing reliance on assisted migration to try
150 to maintain tree species diversity, and a more general shift to novel forests and – in some areas
151 – even non-forest systems. Rapidly mitigating climate change will help ensure a future where
152 the enhancement of ecological resilience continues to be a viable option in most production
153 forests. The choices taken and the extent of reliance on coerced versus ecological resilience
154 will have repercussions throughout the coming century.

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161 **Competing interests statement:**

162 The authors declare no competing interests.

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